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AN ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECT OF THE PERSPECTIVES FOR LIVING COURSE ON HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' WILLINGNESS AND ABILITY TO VERBALLY COMMUNICATE

BY

© KATHERINE E. CORMIE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "An Assessment of the Effect of the Perspectives for Living Course on High School Students' Willingness and Ability to Verbally Communicate," submitted by Katherine E. Cormie in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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Date...April 7/75.....

ABSTRACT

The present study was designed to assess the effect of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course on students' ability and willingness to communicate. Perspectives for Living students and control students were selected from two Edmonton Public High Schools. Three measures were applied, pre-post, in order to assess changes in verbal communication. The first was a Self-disclosure Questionnaire to measure students' expressed willingness to disclose personally relevant information. Secondly, an actuarial evaluation of group interaction was compiled to measure students' use of non-immediate language. Lastly, a measure of written communication was administered to assess students' ability to respond empathically to stimulus situations. Data was scored according to levels developed by Carkhuff.

Statistical results of the Self-disclosure Questionnaire, using three way analysis of variance coupled with Scheffe's Multiple Comparison of Means, indicate that students exposed to the Perspectives for Living course disclosed significantly more ($p = .05$) than the control group in the areas of Personality and Attitudes and Opinions. Trends evident in the graphic presentation of measures of non-immediacy indicate that the Perspectives for Living students decreased in their use of non-immediate language. Results from the Carkhuff data were analysed using a two way analysis of variance and these revealed that Perspectives for Living students did not respond more empathically as a result of exposure to the course.

Suggestions for teaching methods and the importance of the effect of modelling were discussed. Future research was recommended to assess teachers' level of communication.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Recently in Alberta, a Commission on Educational Planning was established to investigate present and future trends in education. In the summary report of the Commission, Worth (1972) elucidated one of the primary goals which he considered necessary for the successful functioning of students in schools of the future:

> The integrity of the learner in tomorrow's school will never be fulfilled if he learns only how to solve problems as an individual. He must be prepared to approach learning in co-operation with others. Ability to communicate will become fundamental to this process. . . . Effectiveness in communicating ideas and feelings must continue to be sought at every level of our educational system. . . . Healthy interpersonal relationships cannot be learned from books. . . . Communication is the influence one person has upon another, and how he is influenced in return. It is practiced between people — it is learned in the crucible of human experience (pp. 173-174).

To a certain extent the Edmonton Public School Board anticipated Worth's recommendation. In a brief presented to the Board (June 18, 1969), a committee composed of interested persons from within the community and the school system presented a report recommending the introduction of a program of personal and family life education. This report concluded that, as a result of widespread economic and social change taking place in western society, ". . . a very serious gap exists in present education programs — that of the development of knowledge, values and attitudes in all areas of human relationships" (p. 2). In addition to recommending the introduction of a course to bridge this gap, the committee also recommended that provision be made for evaluation of its effectiveness.

Following these recommendations, the Edmonton Public School Board introduced an experimental course entitled "Perspectives for Living" into the curriculum of a few Edmonton Junior and Senior High Schools in the fall of 1971. This program was based on the general assumption that qualities of human interaction can be explored within the context of a classroom situation and thus the school system should assume responsibility for facilitating this process. As stated in the Perspectives for Living course outline, the main objective was "to increase the capacity for human relationships which sustain and develop the individual along a continuum from birth to death" (Smeltzer, 1971, p. 1). In general this objective was to be achieved by helping the student broaden his recognition and perception of interpersonal issues in the world and communicate his views meaningfully. It was assumed that this would result in the individual's increased ability for "self understanding, mature personal decision-making and valuing in the face of unpredictable and inevitable cultural and personal change" (p. 3). Thus the focus was upon the study of the student's values and beliefs in relation to himself, his family and his society.

Other school systems in North America have recognized the necessity of establishing programs with similar goals. However, these programs have dealt primarily with sex education, family economics, and domestic law, and have typically been entitled Family Life Education. The content of Perspectives for Living, as developed for Edmonton Public Schools, included these topics but extended beyond them to include the study of communication skills, attitudes and values, parent-child relationships, and alcohol and drug abuse.

An assumption held by the present investigator, and which is documented in the writings of Rogers (1957), Jourard (1964), and Carkhuff (1969), is that productive human relationships rest primarily in the quality of communication. Quality communication consists of clarity in both the sending and receiving of verbal and non-verbal messages. Therefore, implicit in any educational program designed to increase the capacity for human relationships is the goal of improving interpersonal communication skills.

The overall purpose of the present study was to assess and evaluate the extent to which the Perspectives for Living program was effective in improving the verbal communication skills of students in two Edmonton Public High Schools during the 1971-72 school year. Recognition of the concern and doubt existent in the general community about this new approach to educating the child led administrative officials to request that empirical studies be carried out by unbiased parties.

In choosing the instruments for assessing verbal communication, the writer took into consideration the strengths and weaknesses of various methods of investigation. As a result, three methods of assessment were utilized. They were: a self-report questionnaire, written communication, and a behavioral index of verbal communication.

Since the major content of the course was the sharing of personally relevant information with significant others, Jourard's 60 item Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (1958) was administered to determine pre-post differences in subjects' reported willingness to self-disclose. To determine whether or not the ability to respond empathically to written stimuli improved, Carkhuff's Student Statement Index of Communication

(1969) was also administered pre-post. Finally, a behavioral measure of openness of communication was obtained through the analysis of half-hour audio tape segments of group interaction using three of Weiner and Mehrabian (1968) scales of non-immediacy in verbal communication.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF PERTINENT LITERATURE

The present chapter includes: (1) a summary of the development of Family Life Education programs in North America and a discussion of their application to educational programs in Alberta; (2) a brief discussion of the theory and research which has yielded the instruments used in the present study.

Family Life Education: A Brief History

Because Family Life Education is a very recent concept, little research has been directed toward examining its efficacy. However, there has been much discussion in the popular press of some of the issues involved. For example, in 1969 virtually every major American magazine carried an article on some aspect of sex education (part of the curriculum in Family Life Education and Perspectives for Living) in the school (e.g., *Look*, Sept. 1969; *Life*, Sept. 1969; *Good Housekeeping*, Nov. 1969; *Redbook*, Sept. 1969; *Newsweek*, June 1969). The controversy surrounding this issue has been bitter and extensive. Innumerable pressure groups, organized for the express purpose of keeping Family Life Education out of the schools, were successful to the extent that 13 states removed the subject from the school curriculum. This happened in spite of the fact that a Gallop Poll reported that 70% of parents in the United States were in favor of such courses (Report of the Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities, 1970). In response to pressure group activity, counter-attack articles such as "Suggestions for defense against extremists on sex education in the public school"

(Report of the Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities, 1970) were published. This article outlined a number of political steps to be taken before introducing sex education in a community. The fact that the article was published at all indicates the depth of the controversy.

The conflict quickly spread to Canada where a rash of articles began to appear in the press and professional literature (Lowes, 1969). In Alberta the issue became a public one in 1968-69 (Motherwell, 1969). When the proposals for Family Life Education were brought before the Public School Boards in Calgary and Edmonton, several interested groups (Calgary Citizens for Better Schools; Society for the Prevention of Sex Education in School; Basic Education Association; Citizens for Improved Education) presented briefs to special meetings of the School Boards. Table 1 indicates the nature of the concerns expressed by both individuals and groups.

Not all the communication received was negative, however, and Table 2 indicates the volume of communication in which support or opposition was expressed.

After examining the evidence presented, the Edmonton Public School Board agreed to implement Perspectives for Living on an experimental basis beginning in the fall of 1971. During the first semester seven schools were involved with the program, and by Christmas that number had been increased to 23, including some parent classes. Ultimately the course would be offered in each year from grades 7 through 12.

TABLE 1

Nature and Frequency of Communications Received Protesting the Implementation of Family Life Education (Perspectives for Living)

	Category of Response	*Frequency*	*% of Total Frequency*	*% of Total Communications*
1.	Invasion of privacy	80	5.7	25.5
2.	Religious grounds	167	12.0	53.2
3.	Infringement of parental responsibilities	211	15.1	67.2
4.	Lack of parental involvement	27	1.9	8.6
5.	Unqualified teachers	103	7.4	32.8
6.	Social consequences of the program	145	10.4	46.2
7.	Inappropriate curriculum priorities	65	4.6	20.7
8.	Perceived nature of F.L.E. program			
	a) Compulsory aspect	74	5.3	23.6
	b) Timing	107	7.6	34.1
	c) Emphasis on sex	248	17.7	78.9
	d) Other	54	3.9	17.2
9.	Cost of program	31	2.2	9.9
10.	Experimentation with children	16	1.1	5.1
11.	Sources of curriculum materials	65	4.6	20.7
12.	Opposition — no reason given	12	0.9	3.8
		1,405		

Source: "Summary of Public Response to the Proposed Family Life Education Program" (Mansfield & Mosychuk, in memo. to Dr. Rolland W. Jones dated January 12, 1970)

TABLE 2

Nature and Frequency of Communications Received Indicating Support For or Opposition To the Implementation of Family Life Education Programs (Perspectives for Living)

Nature of Communications	*For*	*Against*
1. Letters from individuals	182	283
2. Letters from groups and organizations	34	5
3. Non-E.P.S.B. district letters	6	2
4. (a) Petitions	9	8
- number of signatures	(1,551)*	(5,499)*
(b) Survey questionnaires	5	-
5. Briefs (as declared by Dec. 15, 1969)	7	16
Totals	243	314

*The reader should be aware of the number of persons involved in submissions as well as the total number of submissions.

Source: "Summary of Public Response to the Proposed Family Life Education Program" (Mansfield & Mosychuk, in memo. to Dr. Rolland W. Jones dated January 12, 1970).

Selected Theory and Research of the Instruments Used

Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire.

a) Theory of self-disclosure. Self-disclosure *per se* is a relatively new concept in theory and research. In 1935 Lewin discussed self-disclosure in terms of Social Distance. His investigations revolved around the person's readiness to discuss personal information. Rickers-Ovsiandina (1956) used "Social Accessibility" in several studies to determine age and individual differences in the disclosing of personal information to others. It was Jourard, beginning in 1958, who first instituted an extensive investigation into the area of self-disclosure.

As a result of his own work and that of related theorists (Reisman, 1950; Horney, 1950; Fromm, 1956; Shostrum, 1964), Jourard (1964) concluded that the healthy personality was dependent upon complete self-disclosure to a meaningful other. He felt that, "Self-disclosure appears to be one means, perhaps the most direct, by which self-alienation is transformed into self-realization" (1964, p. 16). Jourard delineated two facets of disclosure: first, the aspects of oneself (biographical data) which are disclosed; and second, the individual (target person) to whom the disclosure is directed. He further stated that there is a curvilinear relationship between amount of self-disclosure and a healthy personality. Too much or too little self-disclosure is considered unhealthy.

This has been supported by other investigators (Dollard & Miller, 1950; Goffman, 1963; Hunt, 1964; West, 1968). The major concern regarding too much disclosure seems to be one of indiscriminate disclosure at inappropriate times, or, in colloquial terms, "being a

bleeding heart."

Presumably, if the Perspectives for Living course provides a stimulus for meaningful communication, the result should be reflected in higher scores in the topics dealt with on the Self-disclosure Questionnaire in relation to target persons most closely involved with each student. In Jourard's view (1964), the majority of persons under-disclose rather than over-disclose. Therefore, it was an assumption of the present study that any increase in self-disclosure constituted improvement in interpersonal communication.

b) Research in self-disclosure. The following is a summary of some of the previous research concerned with self-disclosure. Most of the studies discussed utilized self-disclosure questionnaires. These will be discussed in greater detail in the following chapter. Briefly, however, the procedure used in this approach is one that requires the individual to indicate on a scale of "disclosing nothing" to "disclosing completely" the extent to which he shares his thoughts on topics of personal relevance. Topics generally include aspects of personality, attitudes, and body image.

In 1958 Jourard and Laskow, with the 60 item self-disclosure questionnaire used in the present study (Appendix A), found that:

1. Young unmarried subjects disclosed most to mother, then father, followed by same-sexed friend and opposite-sexed friend.

2. Disclosure was greater on such topics as attitudes and opinions, tastes and interests, and school. There was less disclosure on topics of money, personality, and body.

3. Females disclose more than males.

4. Married subjects disclose more to spouses and less to others.
5. White subjects disclose more than black subjects.
6. High self-disclosure to parents correlated with positive feelings towards them.

In another study Jourard (1959), using a 40 item questionnaire with teachers in a nursing school, found that the greater the liking for the target person the greater the self-disclosure to that person. He repeated this procedure in 1960, using all male college subjects, and found that the degree of knowing had a greater influence than the degree of liking. That is, subjects disclosed more to males whom they knew well than to males whom they liked but knew less well. Knowing was determined by comparing what the subject reported having disclosed to a target person and what the target person said had been disclosed to him. Liking was determined by each subject rank ordering all other subjects.

In measuring the difference between the amount of disclosure received and the amount of disclosure given, Jourard (1963) found that all subjects disclose themselves in proportion to the extent to which the target person had disclosed to them. Additional support was also given to the fact that women disclose more than men.

West (1968), in a study using a variety of instruments, tested the relationship between anxiety and self-disclosure in adolescents. He found a slight positive relationship and formed the tentative conclusion that "high self-disclosure *per se*, without regard to the conditions under which disclosures are made, is likely to be accompanied by high anxiety" (West, 1968, p. 101). He also suggests that counselors must

not regard disclosure or transparency as a panacea for adolescent problems. He recommended further research into the area as there has been relatively little work done on the self-disclosure patterns of adolescents.

The above mentioned studies were primarily correlational in nature, and provide necessary background information with respect to patterns of self-disclosure. However, for the purposes of the present study, the most relevant research is that which deals with (a) predictive validity in pre-post measures of groups over time; and (b) the question of whether self-disclosure questionnaires measure actual self-disclosing behavior. A review of the literature revealed that research in this area has produced conflicting results.

Resnick (1970) pretested 80 college females with a 40 item self-disclosure questionnaire. On the basis of their scores she selected the 12 highest and the 12 lowest self-disclosers. She then paired the high self-disclosers with the low self-disclosers and measured the amount of disclosure shared. Results showed that the high self-disclosers acted as models for the low self-disclosers and increased their amount of self-disclosing behavior. However, when low self-disclosing subjects were paired with other low self-disclosing subjects, they did not disclose with each other. High self-disclosers paired with other high self-disclosers maintained their high level of disclosure. Thus it may be concluded that, without support for change, subjects maintained their predicted level of self-disclosing behavior.

Jourard (1961) established some of the relationships which have particular relevance to the present study. He pretested first year

nursing school students with a 40 item questionnaire. At the end of training he found a positive correlation between self-disclosure to certain target persons (mother, father, same sexed friend, opposite sexed friend) and grade point average. In addition, there was also a positive correlation with supervisors' ratings of the students' ability to enter into communicative relationships with patients. Thus a moderately high level of self-disclosure to meaningful others may be indicative of a good ability to form relationships and function academically.

Finally, Drag (1968) pretested 48 female undergraduate students with a self-disclosure questionnaire. She then interviewed each subject for 20 minutes and discussed a variety of personally revealing topics. She found that when she remained an objective interviewer and did not disclose anything of herself, subjects maintained their predicted level of self-disclosure. However, when she disclosed personally relevant information about herself, subjects increased their amount of self-disclosure. This finding offers support for the teacher's role as a modeling agent in courses such as Perspectives for Living.

The similarity of the latter two studies seems to revolve around the fact that, unless some intervention is made in terms of modeling of self-disclosure, subjects do predict accurately their level of self-disclosing behavior. Also it may be noted that the correspondence between reported self-disclosure and actual disclosing behavior were assessed within the confines of a dyadic relationship, as opposed to group interactions.

Not all researchers agree with this, however, and question the validity of using self-disclosure questionnaires as predictors of actual

behavior. Himelstein and Kimbrough (1963) found that self-disclosure scores did not predict self-disclosing behavior in students when they were required to speak about themselves in front of their classmates as a group. Hurley and Hurley (1968) had similar results with studies concerning self-disclosing behavior in encounter groups. Finally, Himelstein and Lubin (1968) found no correlation between scores on self-disclosure questionnaires and the MMPI K-scale which was designed to reflect the dichotomy of openness or concealment.

The above-mentioned studies by Himelstein and Kimbrough (1963) and Hurley and Hurley (1968) dealt with self-disclosing behavior in a group and it may well be that reported self-disclosure does not accurately predict behavior for these situations. In light of the studies mentioned earlier (Dollard and Miller, 1950; Goffman, 1963; Hunt, 1964), this may be adaptive to the extent that sharing personally relevant biographical data with a group may be both inappropriate and indiscriminate. In the present study self-disclosing behavior to a group was not examined. Rather, the focus was on self-disclosing behavior to those target persons most important to the subject. The validity of using self-disclosure questionnaires for this purpose has been established.

Wiener and Mehrabian Scales of Non-immediacy.

a) Theory of non-immediacy. The work of Wiener and Mahrabian (1966, 1968) has been based upon the assumption that the analysis of the literal meanings of words in verbal communication can indicate a person's attitudes and feelings towards another person, object, event or situation. From this assumption they have developed a unique system for assessing verbal communication. They have acknowledged that the

area of interpersonal communication is complex. In many ways the *Gestalt* theory integrates the goals outlined in the Perspectives for Living course. Thus the present writer chose to relate the Weiner and Mehrabian scales to this framework. However, on the issues of interpersonal communication many adherents to the *Gestalt* school would question the validity of research which breaks interpersonal communication into its components (kinesthetic, verbal, tone, pitch, word meaning) which reduces the full effect of the message. Wiener and Mehrabian recognize that there are limitations in the area but feel that this is no reason for not attempting to investigate the component parts of communication, and develop operational definitions for these parts. From this position they have chosen to explore the components of the literal meanings of verbal communications. As mentioned earlier, they feel that these can indicate in part a person's feelings and attitudes. In analyzing verbal messages they assume that the greater the negative affect (anxiety produced by either the subject discussed or the person addressed), the greater will be the use of distancing words. This distancing is called non-immediacy and the authors have developed nine categories which they feel are used by people to disguise the implicitly direct message they are sending. The categories, with definitions and examples, appear in Table 3.

It is clear that these categories cover a wide variety of areas and that some categories may not be appropriate for any given situation. For example, under the temporal category it may have been that Bob has just finished showing "X" his house. In this case the scoring of T would be inappropriate since the event really was in the past tense. Wiener and Mehrabian (1968) recognized this and developed the concept

TABLE 3

Criteria and Illustration of Non-immediacy Scales
(Adapted from Mehrabian and Wiener, 1966)

Category	*Definition*	*Example*
Spatial (S)	The communicator refers to the object of communication using demonstrative pronouns implying distance from him.	"Those people need help" vs. "these people need help."
Temporal (T)	Communicator's relationship to object of communication is temporally past or future.	"Bob has been showing me his house" vs. "Bob is showing me his house."
Passivity (P)	Relationship between communicator and object of communication is imposed on either or both.	"I have to see Betty" vs. "I want to see Betty."
Unilaterality (U)	Relationship between communicator and object of communication not mutually determined.	"I am dancing with Sue" vs. "Sue and I are dancing."
Possibility (P)	Relationship between the communicator and object of communication is possible rather than actual.	"I could see Harry" vs. "I want to see Harry."
Part (Communicator) (Pc)	A part, aspect or characteristic is involved in relationship with object of communication.	"My thoughts are about Joe" vs. "I am thinking about Joe."
Part (Object of Communicator (Po)	Part, aspect or characteristic of object of communication involved in relationship with communicator.	"I'm worried about Ellen's future" vs. "I'm worried about Ellen."
Class (Communicator) (C)	A group of people which includes the communicator is related to object of communication.	"Hugh came to see us" vs. "Hugh came to see me."
Class (object of communication) (Cobj)	Communicator is related to a group of objects which includes the object of communication.	"I visited Sam's family" vs. "I visited Sam."

of boundary conditions. These include the physical setting, grammatical factors, cultural subgroup, the degree of formality, the degree of trust in the subject and the degree of confidentiality of the material. Thus boundary conditions define "what occurrences are variations and thus interpretable and therefore without special affect-or-attitude-communication significance" (p. 5). Therefore on this basis each researcher must determine which categories are relevant to that which he is investigating.

The focus of their system has been primarily in the area of liking-disliking of either objects, other persons or situations. However, the present writer feels that these categories extend beyond this to the concept of responsible language adhered to by *Gestalt* therapists. The primary *Gestalt* emphasis is on the "here and now"; that is, in a group or dyadic discussion the focus is on what is happening at the present moment. Thus verbs are in the present rather than the past tense. A second focus is on "owning one's own statements"; that is, not trying to avoid or justify one's own thoughts, attitudes or beliefs by claiming they belong to a larger class. This means that pronouns are "I" rather than "everybody," "you," or "we." A third focus is on personal choice and responsibility. The writer believes the underlying concept is that we are not subject to nebulous undefined forces, but to a great extent choose what we do. Thus statements are phrased as "I want," or "I choose," rather than "I have to" or "I should." Reference to Table 3 shows that the categories of Temporal Class and Modifier objectively measure the concepts of responsible language included within the *Gestalt* framework.

In summary, although *Gestalt* therapists may not agree with the separation or splintering of interactions into components, the non-immediacy scales do seem to measure some of the qualities of responsible

language. Again the assumption of the present study is that people do tend to be non-immediate in their communication and any decrease in non-immediacy constitutes improvement.

b) Research in non-immediacy. There has been relatively little research in this area that bears direct relevance to the present study. Consequently the following summary is to give the reader an understanding of how the research has been carried out.

In 1966-67 three studies were carried out to assess non-immediacy in written forms of communication. Wiener and Mehrabian (1966) asked nursing students to write two sentences about themselves and a person whom they liked, and then repeat the procedure, writing about a person whom they disliked. The authors found that scores for non-immediacy were significantly lower for liked as compared to disliked persons. From this the investigators concluded that the greater the use of non-immediate language the greater the negative affect. The other two studies (Mehrabian, 1966 and 1967b) were in essence replications, using college students. Results supported the initial study.

Extending the complexity of the area, Roth (1973) studied the use of non-immediate language in dyadic relationships. Using 48 university students he found that when a model disclosed with tolerance and acceptance, subjects responded by using immediate language. Roth summarized by reporting the need for further investigations in the field.

Carkhuff Student Statement Index of Communication.

a) Theory of Carkhuff's model of communication skills. Carkhuff developed a theory of therapeutic change in the person from a synthesis

and elaboration of the work of Rogers and the work he did together with Truax. Rogers (1957) defined a healthy relationship as one in which the therapist or person communicates respect, genuineness, positive regard, and empathy. He considered these the necessary and sufficient conditions for an individual to experience a growthful relationship. Truax and Carkhuff (1967) operationalized Rogers' definition of empathy by developing a 9-point scale to measure it. In 1967, Carkhuff and Berenson redefined Rogers' terms for the "necessary and sufficient conditions" and called them "core conditions" or "facilitative conditions." They are:

1. *Empathy*: occurs "where the first person or counselor strives to respond with great frequency to the other person's deeper feelings as well as his superficial feelings" (p. 26).

2. *Respect*: or positive regard, in turn, has its origin in the respect which the individual has for himself. He cannot respect the feelings and experiences of others if he cannot respect his own feelings and experiences (p. 27).

3. *Genuineness*: "The degree to which one person is functionally integrated in the context of his relationship with another, such that there is an absence of conflict or inconsistency between his total experience, his awareness and his overt communication is his congruence in the relationship" (p. 29).

4. *Concreteness*: "the fluent, direct, and complete expression of specific feelings and experiences, regardless of their emotional content, by both therapist and client" (p. 29).

Carkhuff further stated that at times action oriented conditions are expedient and helpful for relationships. He called these conditions

Immediacy, Confrontation, and Self-disclosure. He felt that these dimensions are not essential in every therapeutic relationship but that under some circumstances are expedient and add to it. In addition, he developed a model for disfunctioning and functioning (Fig. 1) representing what he felt were the cumulative effects of either positive or negative relationships. He stated first that, "all interpersonal learning or relearning processes may be for better or for worse" (p. 46) and, secondly, that constructive or destructive results can be accounted for by the level of facilitative and action oriented directions offered by the more knowing person, for example the parent, the teacher or the counselor.

On the basis of research findings (Holder; 1968; Carkhuff, Kratochvil, Friel, 1968; Carkhuff, Friel, Kratochvil, 1969), Carkhuff strongly recommended the use of lay personnel in helping relationships. He had found that lay personnel could function at minimally facilitative levels if didactically trained in communication skills. He went on to point out that the level of formal training *per se* did not guarantee high levels of functioning and recommended didactic teaching for all professional training programs. Carkhuff recognized that the development and maintenance of a healthy personality depends upon the individual's ability to communicate his own feelings as well as express his recognition of the feelings of others.

Although Carkhuff's emphasis has been on the communication of high levels of facilitative and action oriented dimensions by helping or more knowing persons in a therapeutic setting, he has also recognized the necessity of such communication in all interpersonal encounters. Unfortunately few studies have applied his principles and methods to

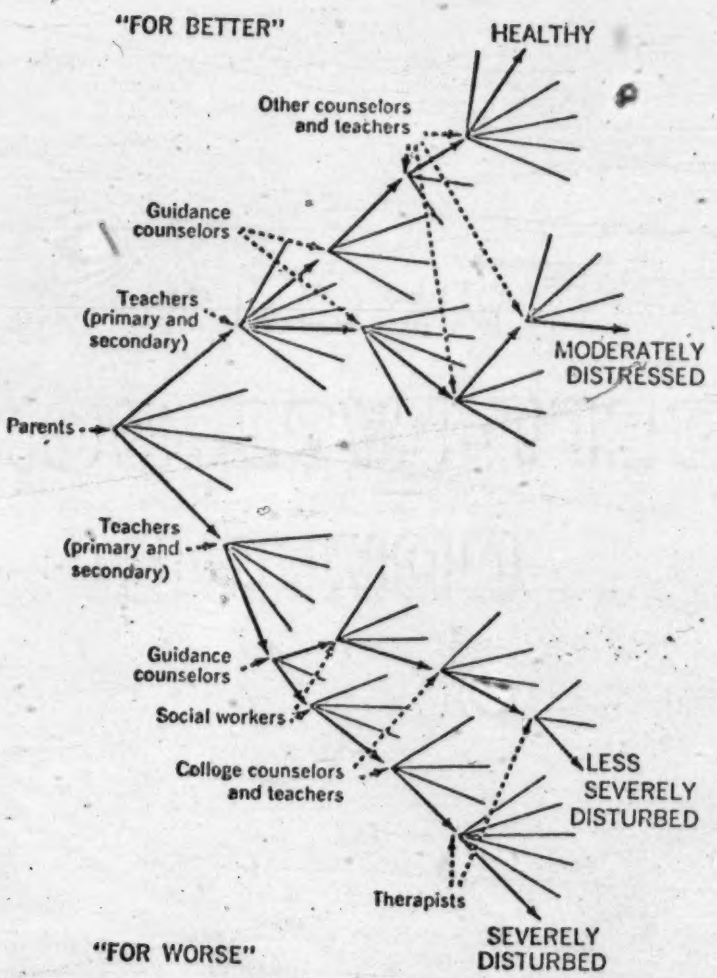


Fig. 1. Systemmatic representation of the consequences of a series of "for better or worse" relationships (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967, p. 47).

more informal interpersonal interactions. The following section summarizes those which are available and have direct relevance to the present work.

b). Research related to Carkhuff's model. Carkhuff has devised scales to measure levels of response in the facilitative and action oriented dimensions he feels are the basis for therapeutic relationships. These scales will be elaborated upon in Chapter 3.

Very few studies have included Carkhuff's Student Statement Index of Communication used in the present study. Kratochvil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) used it to measure the effect of parent- and teacher-offered levels of facilitative and action oriented communication dimensions on grammar school students. Their sample included 80 students, 38 teachers, 76 mothers, and 69 fathers. Each student was measured on indices of physical, emotional and academic functioning. Results indicated that high levels of communication offered by teachers had a significant positive effect on students' reading ability. The authors based their conclusion on the results of one teacher whose responses were at the 3.0 level of empathy. Significant differences did not occur on any of the other measures. It was found that the mean level of communication on the Student Statement Index for teachers was 1.52, and the students' mean level was 1.35. From the results of this study the authors concluded that teachers, parents, and students need to be systematically trained in communication skills.

Vitalo (1970) found that subjects increased their emission of personal pronouns in proportion to higher functioning experimenters. This gives indirect support to work by Wiener and Mehrabian (1966, 1968)

on measures of non-immediacy.

Summary

One purpose of this chapter has been to present the background of the Perspectives for Living course. An important goal of the course is that of improved communication. The variables reviewed, namely self-disclosure, immediacy, and empathy, would appear to have direct relevance to the assessment of whether the expressed goals of the course have been achieved. It was the belief of the writer than an increase in self-disclosure, immediacy of communication, and communication of high levels of empathy would come about as a result of the Perspectives for Living course.

CHAPTER 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The present chapter contains the following: (1) definitive statements of each hypothesis tested; (2) description of the subject sample; (3) a discussion of the instrumentation; (4) a description of data collection procedures.

Hypotheses Tested

Hypothesis I: There will be an increase in measured level of communication for subjects in the experimental groups as a result of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course.

Hypothesis II: There will be a decrease in non-immediate categories of verbalization for the experimental groups as a result of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course.

Hypothesis III: There will be an increase in measured amount of self-disclosure to significant others for experimental subjects as a result of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course.

The Sample

The subjects were students enrolled in nine classes in two Edmonton Public High Schools: Harry Ainlay and Victoria Composite. The five experimental classes, three from Harry Ainlay and two from Victoria included 110 students in the Perspectives for Living program. The four control classes, two from Harry Ainlay and two from Victoria included 98 students. The control classes were made up of a Social Studes 20 class and a Social Studies 30 class at Harry Ainlay and Sociology 10

and Sociology 20 classes at Victoria. These particular classes were chosen because, like the experimental classes, they were composed of students who were in a variety of academic programs. A total of 208 subjects were assessed for the present study; however, because the classes included varying numbers of students, a random sample of 12 subjects was selected from each class. Therefore, the final research sample numbered 108: 54 males and 54 females. The mean age of experimental subjects was 17.2 years; mean age of control subjects was 16.7 years.

Data Collection

The "Perspectives for Living" program was presented on a semester basis; one semester held from September to December 1971; and the second from January to June 1972. Accordingly, in September 1971 during the second week of the semester, four classes were pretested. These included two experimental and two control classes. Posttests for these classes took place during the last week of the semester in December. In January 1972, during the first week of the second semester, five classes were pretested. These included one experimental class at Harry Ainlay and four classes, two experimental and two control, at Victoria. Posttests for these classes took place during the last week in May 1972. All groups spent an equal amount of time in the program. First term classes were 90 minutes in duration, second term classes were 73 minutes.

Instrumentation

All subjects were required to complete the following questionnaires in the stated order at both the pretest and posttest assessment times.

1. Jourard's 60 Item Self-disclosure Questionnaire (Appendix A).

2. Carkhuff's Student Statement Communication Index (Appendix B).

In addition, a group of six subjects from each Harry Ainlay class and a group of seven subjects from each Victoria class were chosen on a random basis to participate in 30-minute audio-taped group discussion sessions. The author was present but did not participate in these discussions. A list of suggested topics for discussion was given to each group (Appendix C). However, it was made clear that each group was free to generate its own discussion of topics of its choice.

a) Self-disclosure Questionnaire. Jourard and Lasakow (1958) developed the 60 item questionnaire to investigate the extent to which subjects are willing to share information on six general topics with four significant target persons. The six general topics, each covered by ten items, are: Attitudes and Values, Tastes, Work and School, Money, Personality, and Body. Target persons were father, mother, male friend and female friend. Subjects are required to indicate on a 4-point scale the extent to which they have discussed each item with each target person. In the Jourard and Lasakow (1958) study, the results showed that subjects disclosed most to mother, followed by father, same sexed friend, and opposite sexed friend. In addition, the authors found a consistent trend to disclose most on topics of attitudes, tastes, work and school. The questionnaire yields 24 self-disclosure scores for each subject; one under each topic category for each target person.

b) Carkhuff Student Statements. Nine stimulus statements covering three affect areas (elation, depression, and anger) were designed by

Kratochvil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) in order to provide a discrimination and communication index with advanced grammar school students, parents, and teachers. Subjects are required to write their responses to each statement. These statements take the form of hypothetical problems presented by a peer. Problem areas covered by the statements are physical, emotional-interpersonal, and intellectual.

To determine the subject's level of communication, responses may be rated on a 5-point scale for any or all of the following conditions: empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness, and self-disclosure. For the purposes of the present study, subjects' responses were rated only for empathy, as this scale correlates highly with the other facilitative scales. Empathy was defined as occurring: "Where the first person or counselor strives to respond with great frequency to the other person's deeper feelings as well as his superficial feelings" (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 26). Level of functioning is determined on the following basis:

> On all scales, level 3 is defined as the minimally facilitative level of interpersonal functioning. At level 3 of the empathic understanding scale, the verbal or behavioral expressions of the first person (the counselor or therapist, teacher or parent) in response to the verbal or behavioral expressions of the second person (the client, student, or child), are essentially interchangeable with those of the second person in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning. Below level 3 the responses of the counselor detract from those of the client. Thus, at level 1, the lowest level of interpersonal functioning, the first person's responses either do not attend to or detract significantly from the expressions of the second person in that they communicate significantly less of the second person's feeling than the second person has communicated himself. At level 2, while the first person does respond to the expressed feelings of the second person, he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeably from the affective communications of the second person. Above level 3, the first person's responses are additive in nature. Thus at level 4, the responses of the first person add noticeably to the expressions of the second person in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the second person was able to express himself. Level 5, in turn, characterizes those first person responses which add significantly to the

> feelings and meaning of the second person in such a way as to express accurately feelings levels below that the person himself was able to express himself or in the event of on-going deep self-exploration on the second person's part to be fully with him in his deepest moments (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 5).

Three raters were trained by a Ph.D. student with extensive experience with this technique. All raters were M.E. candidates who were familiar with Carkhuff theory and scales. Each rater scored 2/3 of the data in an alternating overlap design (Fig. 2) that allows for maintenance of reliability both among raters and among excerpts. After each group of 270 excerpts had been scored, reliability checks were carried out and raters changed position (e.g., rater A becomes rater B). Ninety excerpts from the beginning, middle and near the end of the rating sessions were taken to establish reliability.

The Spearman-Brown Formula was applied to arrive at a reliability of scores derived from the average rating of two judges. The reliability coefficient was .82. Percentage of agreement between raters was also carried out and found to be 85% between rater A and rater B, 82% between rater A and rater C, and 87% between rater B and rater C.

c) Audio-taped ratings of categories of non-immediacy. The behavioral analysis of communication was done from scoring line segments of audio-taped group discussions. Half hour audio-tapes were made on C60 cassettes with a Sony cassette recorder. From each tape two typewritten segments of ten lines from the first 15 minutes and from the last 15 minutes were taken. A table of random numbers was used (Dixon & Massey, 1968) to determine at what point in time within each 15 minute segment the excerpt should be transcribed. Line segments rather than time segments were used to insure uniformity of quantity, since some groups

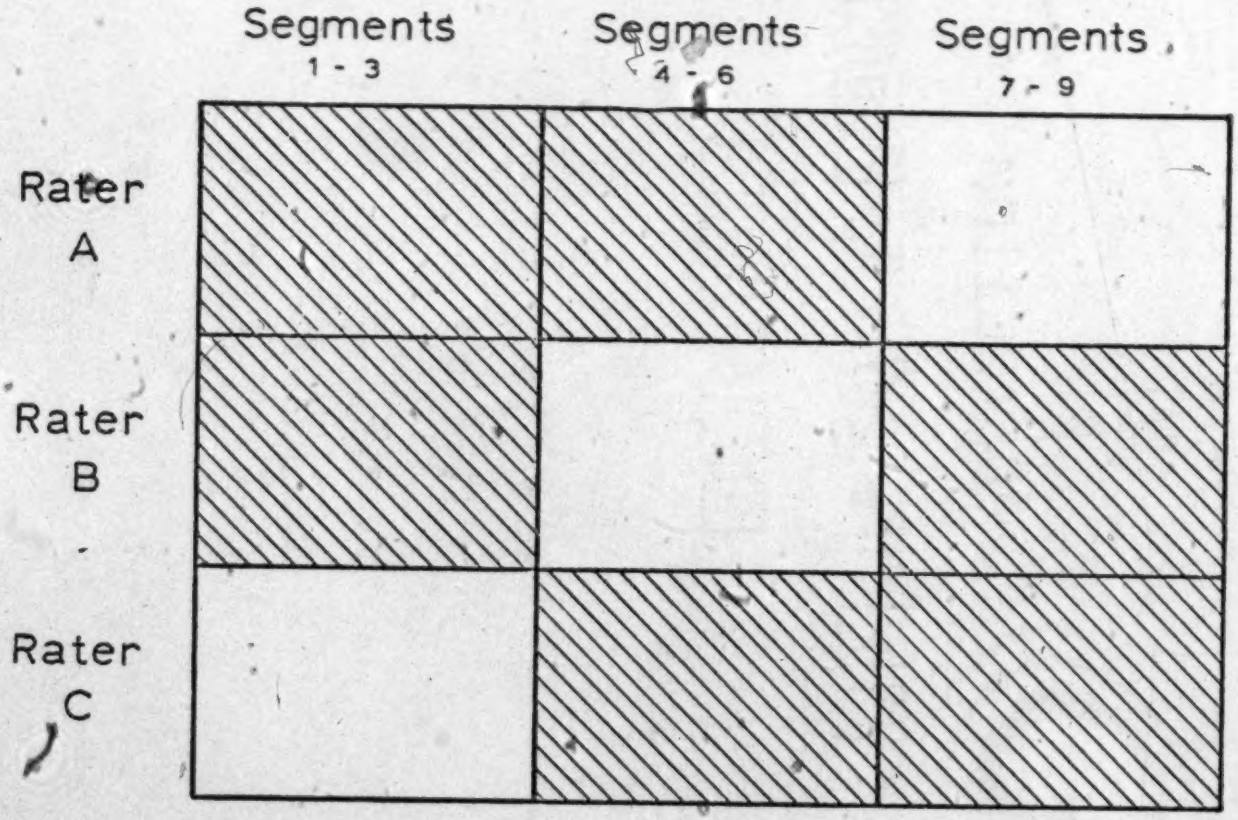


Fig. 2. A diagrammatic representation of the alternating overlap design used in scoring the Student Statement Index of Communication.

tended to talk more quickly than others. The following Wiener and Mehrabian scales were used:

> Class Category (C): The score "C" is assigned if, in the verbalization, the symbol used for designating the subject, or the sumbol used for designating the object refers to a class of objects which includes the given object. The score may be any one of "Cs," "Co," or "Cs,Co" (class subject, class object, or class subject and class object). . .
>
> e.g. EVERYONE feels nervous in a new situation. Cs
> I like to depend on SOMEBODY (meaning X). Co
> SOMEONE should tell THEM (meaning X) off. Co,Cs.
> (1968, pp. 90-91)
>
> Part Category (P): The score "P" is assigned if, in the verbalization, the symbol used for designating the subject refers to a part, characteristic, attribute, or aspect of the consensual (assumed) object.
>
> Instances of verbalization in which the statement is in the form of a negation, but where the boundary conditions allow an affirmative statement, are also scored "P". In such instances of negation, the communicator is changing from one characteristic of the subject (or object) to another. For example, given the question "Is she good-looking?", the answer "She's not bad-looking" is scored "Pn". A response "She is ugly (beautiful)" would not be scored.
>
> e.g. I hate X's GUTS. Po
> I like the PRINT of Passage X. Po (p. 90)
>
> Modified Category (M): This category is assigned to a communication in which an objectification or qualification of the communication is introduced in the verbalization. The communicator, through his qualification, indicates the possibility that his statements may not be consensually shared with others (or the addressee). This implication of other possible "interpretations" of the event indicates a separation or discreteness of the communicator from other possible communicators. Similarly, in the instance of objectification, there is a separation of the communicator from the object of communication or the communication itself. In these instances, the event or the communication is considered as if it were external to and discrete from the speaker.
>
> e.g. Some MIGHT (I) say that passage is interesting. M
> OBVIOUSLY X hates me. M (p. 94)

Scores are obtained by simply counting up the number of non-immediacy statements scored.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The present study dealt with the problem of measuring pre-post differences in communication skills and attitudes towards communicating personally relevant material in both experimental and control groups. Results of the hypotheses tested are outlined below.

Hypothesis I

There will be an increase in measured level of communication for subjects in the experimental groups as a result of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course.

Simple two way analyses of variance (Winer, 1966, pp. 241, 302) were applied to measure differences between experimental and control groups over time on ratings of the Carkhuff Communication Index of Empathy. As can be seen from Table 4, there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups at either the pretesting or posttesting times. Furthermore, the experimental subjects showed no significant increase in measured level of communication between pretesting and posttesting times.

The mean scores for experimental and control groups at both testing times is presented in Table 5. The scores are very low when considering that Carkhuff scales measure levels from one to five. The control subjects scored consistently lower than the experimental subjects (Table 5); however, as previously seen in Table 4, the differences were not significant.

TABLE 4

Summary of Analysis of Variance for Differences in Communication of Empathy Scores between Groups, Repeated on Time

Source	*MS*	*DF*	*F*	*P*
Group	0.136	1	3.103	0.08
Time	0.025	1	1.869	0.17
Group x Time	0.000	1	0.004	0.95

Significance level: $p \leq .05$

TABLE 5

Mean Communication Scores of Subjects in Experimental and Control Groups at Pretesting and Posttesting Times

	Pretest	*Posttest*
Experimental Group	1.25	1.23
Control Group	1.19	1.18

Hypothesis II

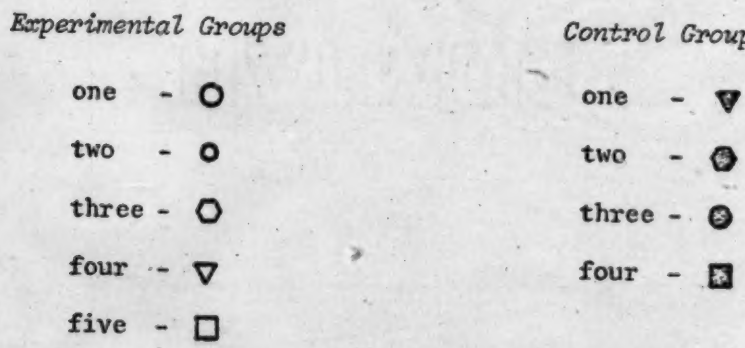
There will be a decrease in non-immediate categories of verbalization for the experimental groups as a result of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course.

Raw data for the Mehrabian and Wiener Scales of Non-immediacy have been graphed (see Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7). Statistical analyses were not considered feasible because of the small numbers of groups. The hypothesis cannot, therefore, be examined directly; however, trends evident in the data are explored. Five graphs are presented to give a progressive summation of the data. The vertical axis for Figures 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 presents raw scores for each group. Experimental groups are shown by open symbols and control groups by solid symbols. The horizontal axis indicates pretesting and posttesting times.

On Figure 3 the data for Class Category are presented. As elaborated in Chapter 2, this category measures the use of classes of persons or objects (e.g., everybody or someone) in situations where a specific person or object is referred to (e.g., myself or Susan). The graph shows a consistent downward trend for all but one of the experimental groups whereas the control group data fluctuate in a random fashion. In summary, the experimental groups were comparatively consistent in the decrease of non-immediate class terms between pretesting and posttesting times.

The data related to the Modifier Category are presented in Figure 4. As described in Chapter 2, modifiers are terms which qualify or objectify the message being sent (e.g., maybe, probably). These results are similar to those for the class category in terms of the consistent downward trend of the experimental groups as compared with the control groups.

Fig. 3. Raw scores for the experimental and control groups at pretesting and posttesting times for the non-immediacy category of Class.



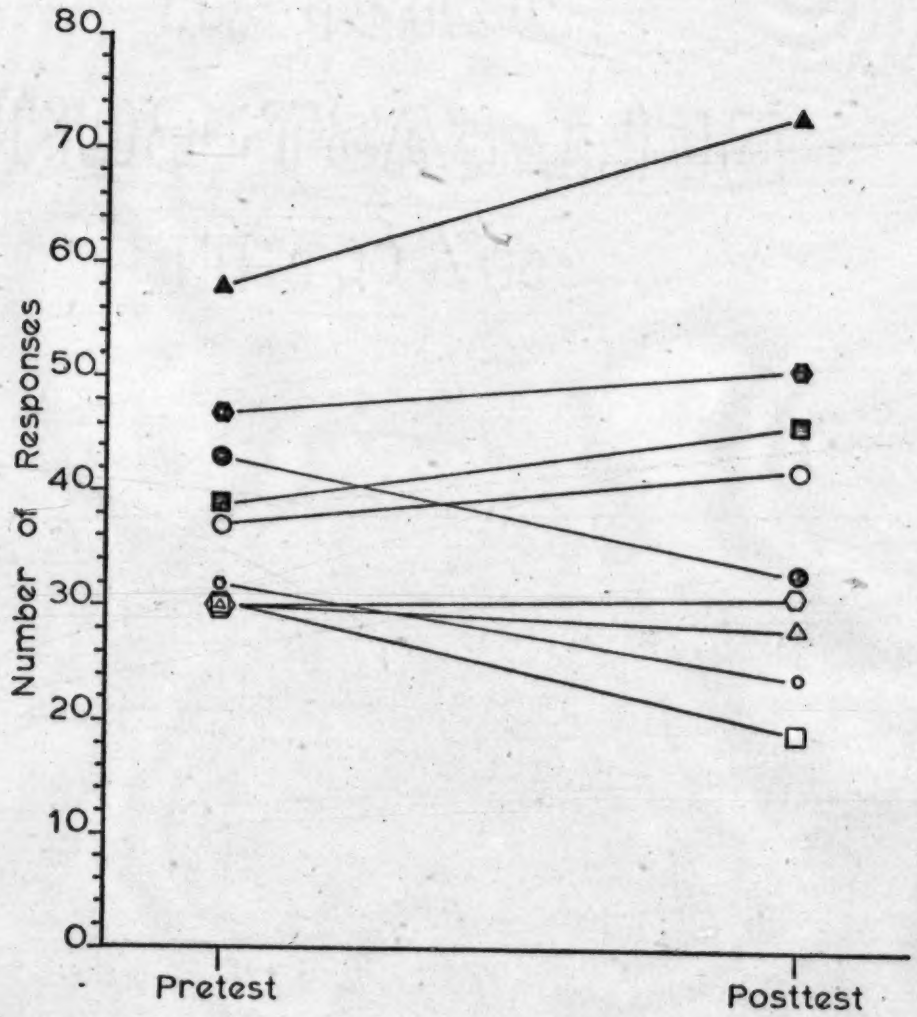
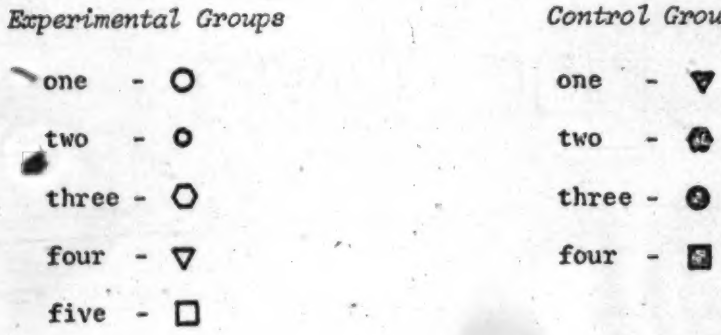
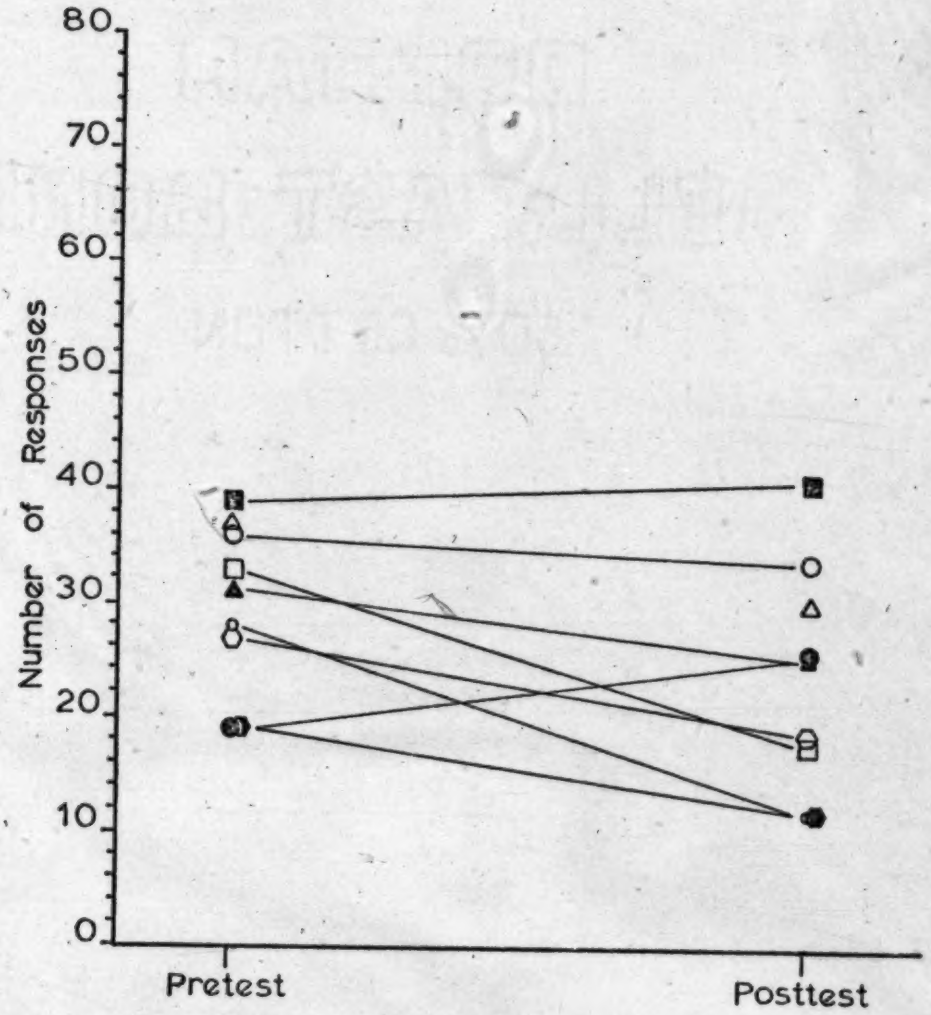

80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Number of Responses
Pretest
Posttest

Fig. 4. Raw scores for the experimental and control groups at pretesting and posttesting times for the non-immediacy category of Modifier.




80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Number of Responses
Pretest
Posttest

The results for the Part Category are presented in Figure 5. This refers to the use of terms indicating attributes, or characteristics, of a person or object to neutralize the effect of a statement (e.g., Is she beautiful? Well, she has nice hair.) In general it can be seen that there were fewer responses in this category than either the Class or the Modifier categories. Again there is a greater consistency in the downward trend of the experimental group.

A summary of total responses for each group is presented in Figure 6. As shown, the control groups are quite inconsistent, whereas all the experimental groups with the exception of group one show more consistency in terms of number of responses as well as downward trend between the pretesting and posttesting times.

The mean total scores for the experimental group and the control group are presented in Figure 7. This final summary table indicates that there was a decrease in the use of non-immediate language for the experimental group whereas the control group stayed the same.

It should be recalled that inter-rater reliability was arrived at by percentage agreement of two judges and was found to be 0.76.

Hypothesis III

There will be an increase in measured amount of self-disclosure to significant others for subjects in the experimental groups as a result of a one term exposure to the Perspectives for Living course.

A three-way analysis of variance was applied to the data derived from Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire (Winer, 1966, pp. 319-337). The results are shown in Table 6. Significance was found among targets and between the interaction of classes and targets. In order to

TABLE 6

Summary of Analysis of Variance for Self-disclosure According to Nine Classes, Two Times, and Four Target Figures

Source	*DF*	*MS*	*F-Ratio*	*Probability*
Class	8	0.159	1.48	0.175
Time	1	0.515	2.64	0.107
Targets	3	0.294	12.35	0.000*
Class x Time	8	0.253	1.30	0.255
Class x Target	24	0.414	1.74	0.019*
Time x Target	3	0.270	0.59	0.622
Time x Target x Class	24	0.463	1.101	0.454

*Significance P ≤ .05

TABLE 7

Scheffe's Multiple Comparison of Means of Specific Areas of Self-disclosure between Experimental and Control Groups at Posttest Time

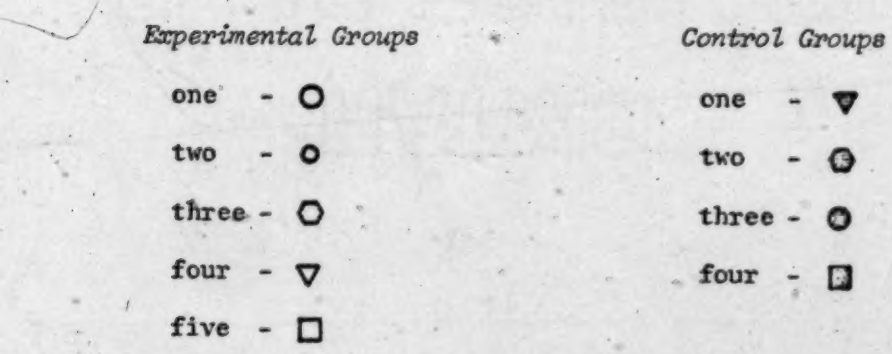
Attitudes and Opinions	*Tastes and Interests*	*School*	*Money*	*Personality*	*Body*
F value 12.64 *	2.61	3.02	0.228	6.19 *	0.86

*Significance P ≤ 0.05

DF = 8

P = 3.44 at the 0.05 level of significance.

Fig. 5. Raw scores for the experimental and control groups at pretesting and posttesting times for the non-immediacy category of Part.



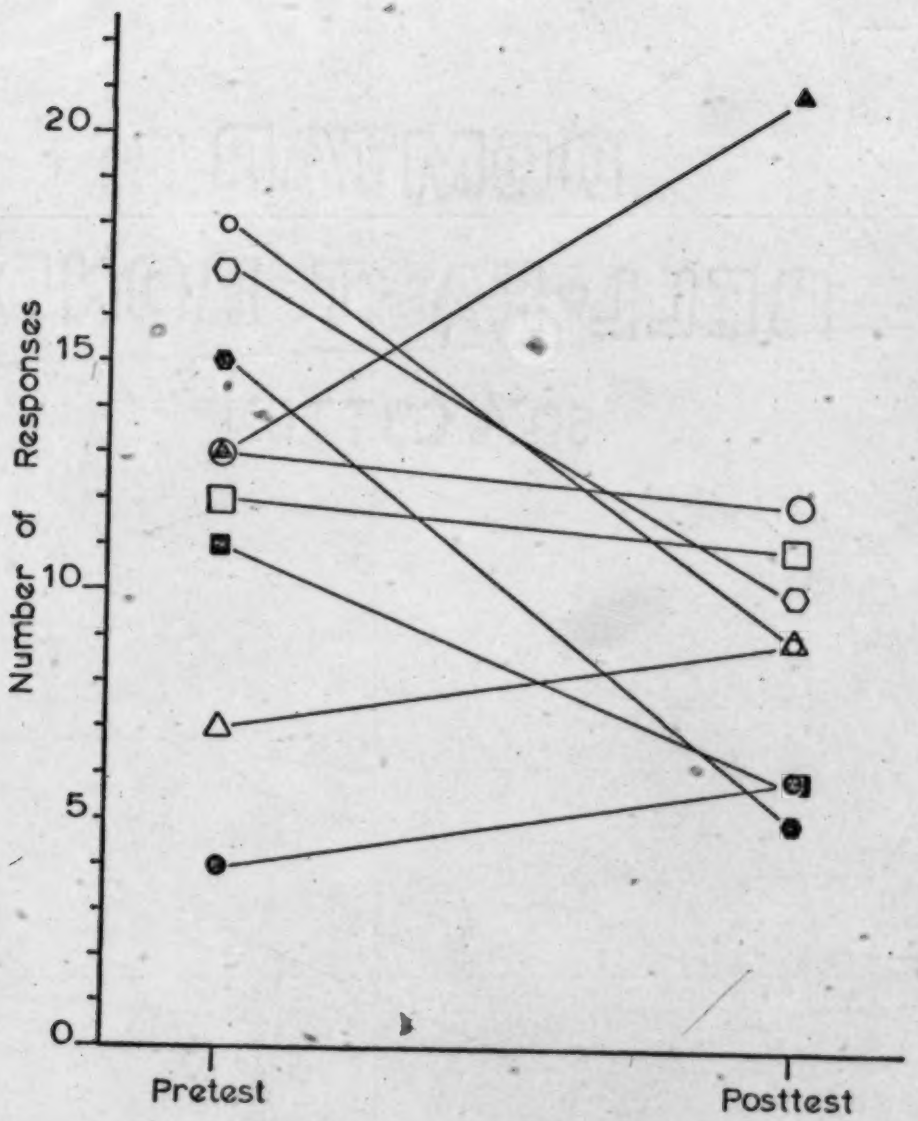
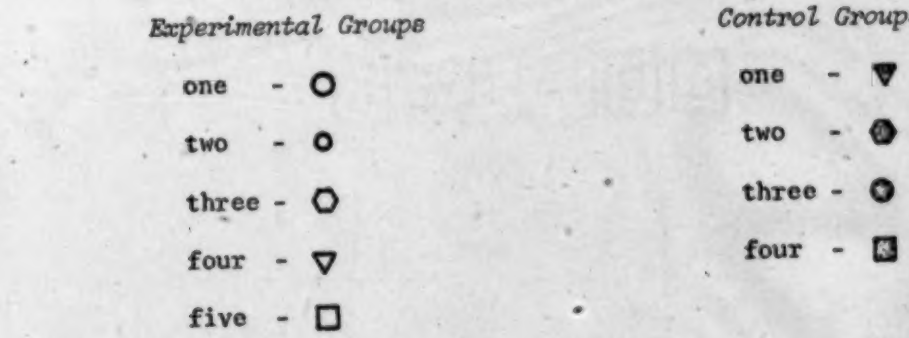

20
15
10
5
0
Number of Responses
Pretest
Posttest

Fig. 6. Total scores for the experimental and control groups at pretesting and posttesting times for the three non-immediacy categories of Class, Modifier and Part.



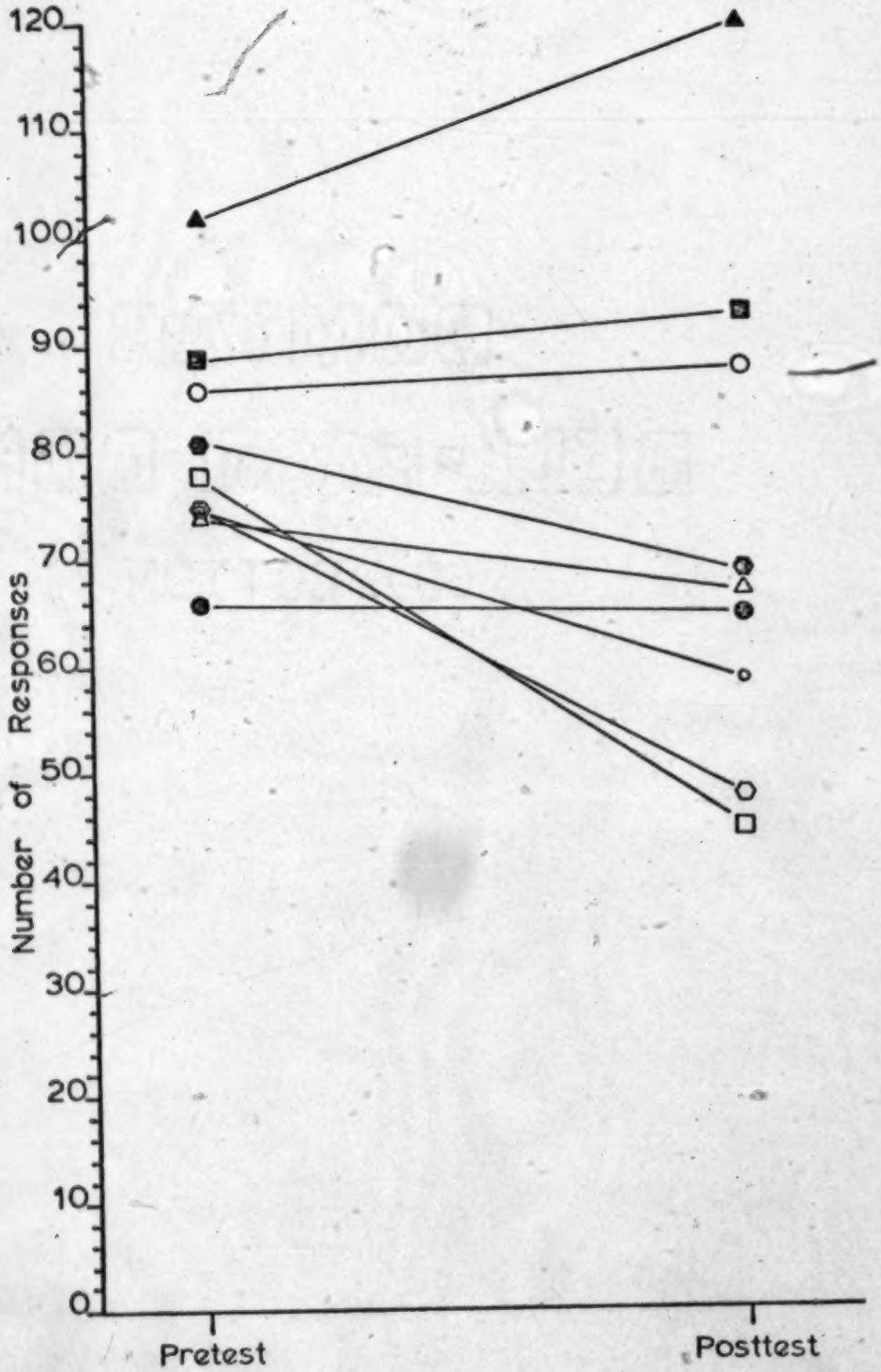
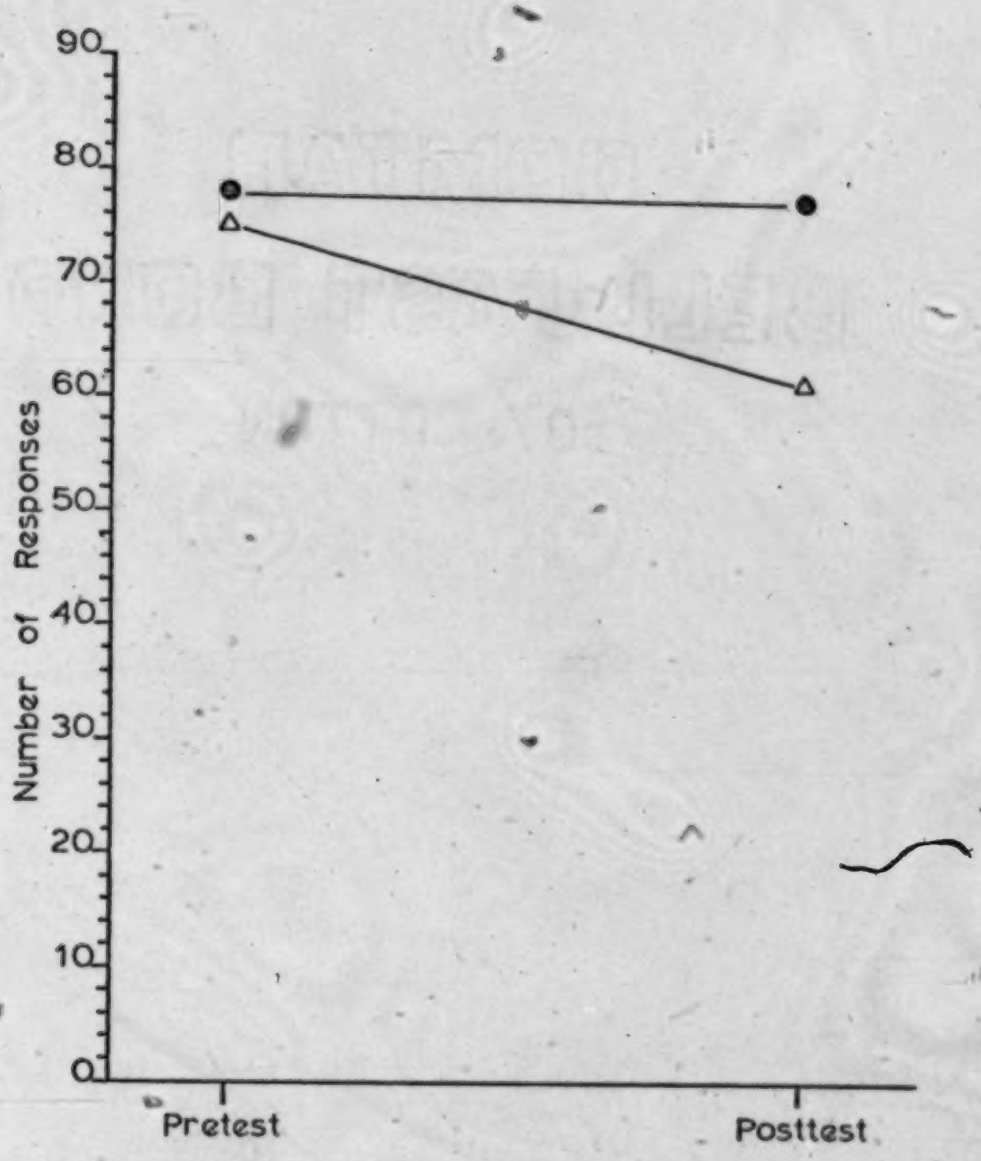

120
110
100
90
80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Number of Responses
Pretest
Posttest

Fig. 7. Mean scores for the experimental and control groups at pretesting and posttesting times for the three non-immediacy categories of Class, Modifier and Part.

Experimental Groups - ▽

Control Groups - ⊖


90
80
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
Number of Responses
Pretest
Posttest

determine whether the difference occurred between experimental and control groups at posttesting time, Scheffe's test of multiple comparisons was applied to the data. Significant increases were found (Table 7) for experimental groups on excerpts measuring attitudes, opinions and personality.

In order to determine whether the significant interaction occurred between classes and targets as a result of any great increase in self-disclosure to a specific target figure, mean scores for target figures in experimental and control groups at pretesting and posttesting times were calculated and are presented in Table 8.

As shown in Table 8 there were overall increases for each target person with the experimental subjects between pretesting and posttesting times. Therefore, the significant differences mentioned in Table 6 could not be attributed to any one target figure. As is further shown, mothers and female friends are preferred targets for self-disclosure in both groups.

TABLE 8

Mean Self-disclosure Scores to Target Figures for Experimental and Control Groups at Pretesting and Posttesting Times

Target	*Experimental Means at Pretest Time*	*Control Means at Pretest Time*	*Experimental Means at Posttest Time*	*Control Means at Posttest Time*
Father	47.55	43.33	55.76	43.58
Mother	53.17	55.27	62.67	53.59
Male Friend	62.63	52.28	60.96	55.06
Female Friend	55.34	54.73	69.56	56.75

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In order to evaluate the effect of the Perspectives for Living course, three separate techniques were used for measuring change in communication skills. The purpose was to achieve a comprehensive overview of the subject area. As discussed in Chapter 4, the results were inconclusive in terms of giving direct acceptance or rejection to the global question of whether or not the Perspectives for Living course improved communication skills. However, when it is realized that the Perspectives for Living course was designed to cover six years from grades 7 through 12, it is impressive that there was any significant change in the students' communication skills as reflected in an evaluation which covered only one-sixth of the total time to be ultimately spent in the course.

Hypothesis I was not supported and, in general, the level of written communication of empathy was low according to the Carkhuff scale but average in relation to the normal population of adolescents. In Chapter 2, results of the Kratochvil, Carkhuff and Berenson (1969) study were presented and showed their students to be responding at the 1.35 level which is somewhat comparable with the results of the present study. At that time, Carkhuff and Berenson stated that there must be a didactic approach to teaching helpers to communicate empathy effectively. The results of the present study would tend to support such a statement. Examination of the responses would seem to indicate that the majority of students tended towards advice giving, and they seemed to feel pressure to provide instant answers to the stimulus

problems. This occurred in spite of the fact that they had had paraphrasing exercises coupled with role playing. With respect to teaching methods, perhaps it is important to emphasize that oftentimes a solution for an individual's problem is not required so much as having an empathetic listener.

The results of the non-immediacy data suggest that subjects did learn the concept of expressing themselves in a responsible manner. In a summary of this data (Fig. 7), it appears that there was a clear difference between the experimental and the control groups. At pretesting time they are similar to each other in the number of non-immediate statements; however, at the time of the posttest the experimental groups decreased considerably in their number of non-immediate statements. When we examine Figures 3, 4, 5 and 6 it becomes clear that there is a great deal of fluctuation within individual groups. Control Group 1 may have inflated the summary scores, as much of their communication was of a humorous or irrelevant nature (see Appendix D). At the same time, Control Groups 3 and 4 remained the same or decreased between pretesting and posttesting times in their use of non-immediate language. This may have been attributed to the fact that they were Sociology 20 classes and experienced exercises which were similar in nature to those of Perspectives for Living classes.

With the exception of Group 1 on the Part category, all the experimental groups showed a consistent downward trend in the use of non-immediacy terms. In listening to the tapes (Appendix D), there appears to be a greater degree of self-disclosure at posttesting time. Jourard (1968) would interpret this as a sign of a greater sense of

trust within the group and a greater predilection towards accepting responsibility for their statements. In other words, subjects used fewer modifiers and more first person singular pronouns at posttesting time as compared to pretesting time.

In regards to teaching methods which would amplify this trend, reference to research on self-disclosure and modelling (Drag, 1968; Resnick, 1970; Roth, 1973) indicates that the teacher's willingness to be immediate and self-disclosing would have a strong positive effect on student behavior. Here the writer is not advocating the "bleeding heart" syndrome described in Chapter 2, but rather a model of directness and openness in the teacher's communication between himself and his students. A factor which should be taken into consideration for future research and which was not possible to assess in the present study was the teacher's level of communication. Teachers for the program were chosen because of their ability to relate to students; however, the selection was not based on any objective criteria.

Looking at the data from Jourard's Self-disclosure Questionnaire, students seemed to feel that they were more willing to disclose personally relevant information that has been dealt with in class. By referring to Appendix A it can be seen that the nature of questions in the areas of Attitudes and Opinions and Personality generally reflects much of the course content. Another interesting point is that the increases were not due to influence of any one target figure. As a whole, the experimental subjects seemed to be disclosing themselves in greater amounts to parents as well as friends at the end of the course. This provides support to one of the original goals of the course, that

is, increased communication with those most closely involved in the student's life.

There is a consistency in the results of the Self-disclosure data and the Non-immediacy data. The experimental subjects reported that they were self-disclosing more and, on an actuarial measure of communication, they were doing this.

It may be tentatively concluded that Perspectives for Living is a course which creates a sense of trust and openness within the classroom and which, according to the students' self report measure, generalizes to other life situations. It would seem that the Perspectives for Living course is a positive step towards the implementation of the Worth (1972) recommendations for future educational programs.

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APPENDIX A

THE SELF-DISCLOSURE QUESTIONNAIRE

The paper which you have been given has columns with headings "Mother", "Father", "Male Friend", "Female Friend". You are to read each item on the questionnaire, and then indicate in the answer columns the extent to which you have talked about that item with each person. Use the rating-scale that you see to describe the extent that you have talked about each item.

The rating-scale is as follows:

0: Have told the other person nothing about this aspect of me.

1: Have talked in general terms about this item. The other person has only a general idea about this aspect of me.

2: Have talked in full and complete detail about this item to the other person. He knows me fully in this respect, and could describe me accurately.

X: Have lied or misrepresented myself to the other person so that he has a false picture of me.

2

		Father	Mother	Male Friend	Female Friend
1.	What I think and feel about religion; my personal religious views				
2.	My personal opinions and feelings about other religious groups than my own, e.g. Protestants, Catholics, Jews, atheists				
3.	My views on communism				
4.	My views on the present government - the prime minister, government, policies, etc				
5.	My views on the question of racial integration in schools, transportation, etc				
6.	My personal views on drinking				
7.	My personal views on sexual morality -- how I feel that I and others ought to behave in sexual matters				
8.	My personal standards of beauty and attractiveness in women -- what I consider to be attractive in a woman				
9.	The things that I regard as desirable for a man to be -- what I look for in a man				
10.	My feeling about how parents ought to deal with children				
11.	My favourite foods, the ways I like food prepared, and my food dislikes				
12.	My favourite beverages, and the ones I don't like				
13.	My likes and dislikes in music				
14.	My favourite reading matter				

		Father	Mother	Male Friend	Female Friend
15.	The kinds of movies that I like to see best; the TV shows that are my favourites				
16.	My tastes in clothing				
17.	The style of house, and the kinds of furnishings that I like best				
18.	The kind of party, or social gathering that I like best, and the kind that would bore me, or that I wouldn't enjoy				
19.	My favourite ways of spending spare time, e.g., hunting, reading, cards, sports events, parties, dancing, etc				
20.	What I would appreciate most for a present				
21.	What I find to be the worst pressures and strains in my schoolwork				
22.	What I find to be the most boring and unenjoyable aspects of my schoolwork				
23.	What I enjoy most, and get the most satisfaction from in my present schoolwork				
24.	What I feel are my shortcomings and handicaps that prevent me from working as I'd like to, or that prevent me from getting further ahead in my studies				
25.	What I feel are my special strong points and qualifications in school				
26.	How I feel that my work is appreciated by others (e.g., fellow-students, teachers, boy friend, etc)				
27.	My ambitions and goals in my studies				

		Father	Mother	Male Friend	Female Friend
28.	My feelings about the rewards that I get for my work				
29.	How I feel about the choice of career that I have made -- or would like to make -- whether or not I'm satisfied with it				
30.	How I really feel about the people that I go to school with				
31.	How much money I make at my work, or get as an allowance				
32.	Whether or not I owe money; if so, how much				
33.	Whom I owe money to at present; or whom I have borrowed from in the past				
34.	Whether or not I have savings, and the amount				
35.	Whether or not others owe me money; the amount and who owes it to me				
36.	Whether or not I gamble; if so, the way I gamble, and the extent of it				
37.	All of my present sources of income -- wages, fees, allowance, dividends, etc				
38.	My total financial worth, including property, savings, bonds, insurance, etc				
39.	My most pressing need for money right now, e.g. outstanding bills, some major purchase that is desired or needed				
40.	How I budget my money -- the proportion that goes to necessities, luxuries, etc				

5

		Father	Mother	Male Friend	Female Friend
41.	The aspects of my personality that I dislike, worry about, that I regard as a handicap to me				
42.	What feelings, if any, that I have trouble expressing or controlling				
43.	The facts of my present sex life -- including knowledge of how I get sexual gratification; any problems that I might have; with whom I have relations, if anybody				
44.	Whether or not I feel that I am attractive to the opposite sex; my problems, if any, about getting favourable attention from the opposite sex				
45.	Things in the past or present that I feel ashamed and guilty about				
46.	The kinds of things that make me just furious				
47.	What it takes to get me feeling real depressed or blue				
48.	What it takes to get me real worried, anxious and afraid				
49.	What it takes to hurt my feelings deeply				
50.	The kinds of things that make me especially proud of myself, elated, full of self-esteem or self-respect				
51.	My feelings about the appearance of my face -- things I don't like, and things that I might like about my face and head -- nose, eyes, hair, teeth, etc				
52.	How I wish I looked; my ideals for overall appearance				
53.	My feelings about different parts of my body -- legs, hips, waist, weight, chest or bust, etc				

		Father	Mother	Male Friend	Female Friend
54.	Any problems or worries that I had with my appearance in the past				
55.	Whether or not I now have any health problems -- e.g., trouble with sleep, digestion, female complaints, heart condition, allergies, headaches, piles, etc				
56.	Whether or not I have any long-range worries or concerns about my health, e.g., cancer, ulcers, heart trouble				
57.	My past record of illness and treatment				
58.	Whether or not I now make special effort to keep fit, healthy, and attractive, e.g., calisthenics, diet				
59.	My present physical measurements, e.g., height, weight, waist, etc				
60.	My feelings about my adequacy in sexual behaviour -- whether or not I feel able to perform adequately in sex-relationships				

APPENDIX B

The following statements represent nine expressions by students of feelings and information in different problem areas. You may think of these persons as people who have come to you with a problem they would like to talk out. They might be students in one of your classes, or a close friend. We would like you to reply as you would if someone came to you seeking help.

2

1. I feel so bad -- I have no friends. Nobody likes me. All the other kids lunch together and play together. They always leave me out -- as if they don't even care about me. Sometimes when I'm alone and all the other kids are together I feel like crying. Why doesn't anyone like me? I try to be nice, but nothing seems to work. I guess there is nothing I can do.

2. It makes me so mad! Everybody is always telling me what to do and what not to do. When I'm at home, my parents tell me what is best for me. At school it's the teacher. Even my friends bother me. Everybody pushes me around. Sometimes I feel like punching them all in the nose! They had just better leave me alone and let me do things the way I want to.

3. I'm so excited and everything is going so great! I ran for president of my class and I won; I guess the other kids really like me. And today my teacher said I was one of the best students she had ever had; she makes me feel all warm inside. And next week, during spring vacation, I'm going to have a great time with my family. I'm so happy. It's unbelievable. Some people make me feel so good.

4. I just don't know what to do. I try very hard in school, but nothing seems to sink in. I guess I'm not very smart. Nobody seems to care that I try. What really hurts is when I see my parents bragging to others about how smart my brother is; they never even mention me -- they even change the subject when I'm mentioned. Oh, I wish I could do better, but I can't. The smart kids are really lucky - everybody likes them because they are smart. Sometimes I even get mad at myself because I can't do any better.

5. I get so angry in school! Everyone tells you what you have to learn, and they don't even care about what you are interested in. You are supposed to like whatever they want to teach you. And some of the stupid things they make you do just to get a good grade! I learn more than some kids who get all A's. For me school is a waste of time. The people there make me so mad that sometimes I want to tell them that I just don't care about all their stupid subjects. But I can't, because I'd get into trouble and that would make me even more angry. I could scream and blow the school up every time I see it.

6. Each day I get up at the crack of dawn and people wonder why. I do because I have a longing to learn about myself and the things around me. It's so exciting! Each moment I see or learn something new -- caterpillars become butterflies, the sun is actually bigger than the earth, or my body is made of many tiny cells. I feel like I'm bubbling over with excitement. I want to learn and discover things all day long!

4

7. Whenever we divide up to choose sides to play I'm always the last one picked. I'm so awkward and I don't seem to play the way the others want me to. No one ever wants me on their side. It really makes me feel bad to be the last one left. When everybody is playing I just lean against the nearest wall -- sometimes I could cry; when I do I simply feel worse than ever -- and all the other kids laugh at me then. I hate my body; why couldn't I have gotten a different one?

8. People get me so mad! Sometimes I feel like really letting them have it. That would at least make them stop making fun of the way I look. Just because I'm bigger than most kids my age, they call me names. The other kids call me "lardy" or "fatso". Sometimes my teacher says I'm a big bully. Even my dad and mom don't like the way I look; they kid me by saying, "You'll grow out of it, we hope". Well, they just better watch out because I'll show them I can really be a bully if I want to. I'm not going to let them make fun of me and get away with it.

9. I could just run and run and run. I feel so strong! In gym today I beat everybody on the physical fitness test. At home I get my work done faster than anyone else. I'm so full of energy and I have so many ways to use it. I'm so happy and so strong I could work and play and never stop.

APPENDIX C

DISCUSSION TOPICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

How I want or do not want to raise my children.

What I would or would not like to be when I grow up.

What I would or would not want out of marriage.

How I feel or do not feel about being in this group.

Any other topic I would like to talk about.

APPENDIX D

EXCERPTS OF AUDIO-TAPED COMMUNICATION

Experimental Group Pretesting Time

Some people want to be with just one person. Yeah, I know, but	Cs, M
why get married, you can be with one person without having a	Cs, Pa
document that says we are married, big deal. Why not? Well,	Cs
for some people that's security. Some people need security, Bob.	Cs, Pa, Cs

Experimental Group Posttesting Time

I know the way I'm going to raise my kids is going to be completely different than the way my parents did. I'm going to be strict. Really strict? Not really strict but I'm going to step down on them. I'm not going to be against the way they breathe or that, but I'm still going to be strict, like you know, be in by a certain time.	M, M

Experimental Group Pretesting Time

Well, I imagine the first thing you want is security, right?	Cs, M
And well, everybody wants to be happy with their marriage.	Cs, Cs, M
Yeah. And most people want kids, some people want kids, I	Cs, Cs, P
should say. You think you should get married without really	M
getting to know the other person, like I think trial marriages	M, M
are really a good idea . . .	

Experimental Group Posttesting Time

My parents, that happened to me the first year and my stepsister P
and I were best friends. We still are best friends. We were
best friends all our life and so her and I banded together 'cause P
she wasn't used to my Dad and I wasn't used to her Mom, so slowly M
we sorta came out into the world and started accepting things. Co

Control Group Pretesting Time

There wasn't as much opportunity when they were children so now Co, Co
if they had the chance they'd go all out. Yes. There is Co, Co
something lost nowadays, there is something stupid. That's why Co, Co, M
a lot of kids you know, young kids, now are doing things like Co, Co, Co
stealing and breaking things.

Control Group Posttesting Time

Nobody can say for sure what they think is right. They can say Cs,P,M,M,Cs,PM
it but it's got no value. You can say it but it doesn't Cs, P, M
really have much meaning, it's just another way to knock it M
down, and take another point of view. But so people just see Co, M
the bible as another way of life.